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ABSTRACT

This paper presents selected findings from 3.5 years of a research project funded by the Overseas Development Administration of the United Kingdom and entitled "Training Third World Educational Administrators--Methods and Materials." The report looks first at recent interest among Third World countries in the training of educational administrators, then notes a number of problems areas that will need to be addressed if new training initiatives are to have a significant impact. One critical issue discussed is the lack of training materials. The report provides an overview of the methods and materials currently used and discusses materials development, dissemination, and utilization. Materials developed during the research project are described and findings from the field trials are reviewed. The report concludes by synthesizing the information gathered to provide generalizable conclusions concerning learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the Third World. The main conclusion of the report is that those training the administrators must themselves be properly trained in the use of the methods and materials currently available or being developed, and that ministries of education must take steps to ensure the adequate funding of this required training as well as for material development itself. (PGD)

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LEARNING RESOURCES FOR THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN THE THIRD WORLD

by

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This paper was prepared for a Symposium on "The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas," sponsored by the Caribbean Society of Educational Administrators in association with the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administrators. It presents some of the findings and experiences of the research project "Training Third World Educational Administrators--Methods and Materials" which is funded by the Overseas Development Administration, UK. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and should not be taken to represent the views of the ODA.

INTRODUCTION

The ODA-funded research project originated out of a concern for the severe shortage of appropriate materials for use in the training of third world educational administrators. The original project aims were to survey the provision of training in educational administration in a number of developing countries and its quality in relation to identified training needs; to study the nature of this provision particularly the alternative strategies, training methods and materials which are employed; and to develop, in collaboration with third world trainers, materials for use in future training programmes. In the course of time we recognised that a key role the project could also be playing, and one which we have seen increasingly as a major objective, is to stimulate institutional materials development processes and the adoption of more diverse training methodologies by third world trainers.

The purposes of this paper therefore, are to outline some of the findings, impressions and experiences from the past three and a half years of the project's life. We look first at the present preoccupation with educational administrator training, suggesting a number of problem areas that will need to be tackled if new training initiatives are to have a significant impact in the future. One critical issue is lack of training materials, and we provide an overview of methods and materials used in training and examine questions concerning materials development, dissemination and utilisation. We then describe the materials we have developed and discuss some of the findings from the field trials and our initial conclusions. Finally we attempt to synthesize these various strands in order to present for discussion some more generalisable conclusions concerning learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the third world.

The paper is thus in four parts.

1. The professional development of educational administrators--patterns of training and problem areas
2. Methods and materials--an overview and examination of issues
3. The ODA project materials--their development, dissemination and evaluation
4. Learning Resources--towards some conclusions

1. THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

(a) Educational Preoccupations - Past and Present

Education in the developing world as in industrialised countries is rather prone to waves of enthusiasm for some particular aspect of activity which is ultimately supplanted by another. Right now, training educational administrators seems to be an area of intensifying interest, at least in quite a few different parts of the world.

There has been a succession of different educational preoccupations in the third world since the days of newly achieved independence in the early 60's.

1. The build-up of secondary and higher education to meet shortfalls in well qualified manpower.

2. The generation of many curriculum development projects aimed at making the content of education more relevant and less influenced by colonial perceptions of what was appropriate.

3. The disappointing love affair with educational technology, which promised to make education more effective, cheaper and more widely disseminated, and which largely failed to deliver these promises.

4. Educational planning and the push to rapidly increase enrolments. Massive achievements in enrolments were accomplished, but against a background of rising population figures and falling economic growth figures, the anticipations of universal primary education in many developing countries by 1980 proved a cruel disappointment. Educational planning has come under heavy attack since it is widely perceived to be unduly centralist and undemocratic as well as prone to margins of error in guessing the future which are so substantial as to put the utility of the planning exercise in considerable doubt.

5. Nonformal education as the liferaft on which optimistic pundits seek to escape from the sinking ship of formal educational systems which are said to be irrelevant, ineffective and inefficient. (Deschooling--the extreme reaction--never caught on in the Third World, thank goodness).

So now the training of educational administrators/managers (call them what you will), seems to be one of the current and growing enthusiasms. Curiously this preoccupation is equally visible in industrialised countries, as in the Third World. For some reason, Australia, Canada and some (but by no means most) parts of the USA have given administrator training priority and emphasis for a good few years now. Indeed, a small number of institutions in the USA have a track record going back decades, although their work was often heavily oriented to research and theory-building as opposed to training. Elsewhere, the emphasis

is fairly new. Britain, for example, has just launched a national scheme for the training of head teachers, with a centre currently located at Bristol University, and there are some parallels in other OCED countries.

Many of these new developments are clearly based on dissatisfaction with prior arrangements. Three questions immediately pose themselves.

1. Why this new preoccupation with training educational administrators?

2. What is the nature of current training provision?

3. Is it having a significant effect or is it likely to?

These are questions we shall address in the rest of this part of the paper.

(b) The New Emphasis

The new emphasis on training educational administrators has its roots in the experiences of the 60's and 70's. As remarked earlier, these decades saw a succession of attempts to extend the provision of education in developing countries, to define more relevant goals and contents, to improve effectiveness and raise the quality of education, and to make it more efficient thereby increasing quantity and quality without escalating costs. In broad terms, the achievements in extending access to education have been impressive even if they fell short of the early optimistic targets. But a considerable price has been paid. Many would argue that standards have fallen (albeit compared to earlier systems that were much more elitist) and costs have not been significantly reduced. Perhaps most significantly, the belief that the models of education which the third world inherited from the West are irrelevant is still widespread. Yet efforts to reform education have made relatively little progress (at least in relation to the early expectations of what would be accomplished). Hence, the current diagnosis that it is the implementation of these reforms that is the weak link in the chain. If education is managed at the middle and lower levels by people who have had no training, then--the argument runs--it is not surprising to find that they are not particularly effective, efficient or responsive to change.

One of the principal agencies to expose this view is the World Bank, and it is no coincidence that several of the national institutes being established in third world countries were set up with World Bank funds. However, the Bank does not dictate to borrowers what they must borrow although it wields considerable influence, and there is no doubt that this analysis is widely shared in Ministries of Education as it is in other agencies such as UNESCO. It is hard to disagree with this consensus, although there are several dangers inherent in it. One is that training administrators will become another in the list of transient fads or gimmicks to which education is prone, to be replaced by

another as soon as it appears that results will be hard to come by and not to be achieved overnight. Another is that committment will be rhetorical rather than real, and that token efforts will merely scratch the surface of the problem. A third is that the training programmes are likely to succeed in training people in systems' maintenance but not in innovation and reform.

(c) Current Provision in Developing Countries

In developing countries, attention to the training of administrators is by no means evenly distributed. Some countries give it much more weight than others. We can distinguish five principal forms of provision.

1. Ad hoc one-off courses or conferences organised by departments of the Ministry of Education, or local authorities*.

2. Courses organised by university departments of education.

3. On-the-job-training.

4. Training abroad.

5. Specialised Ministry sponsored institutes for the training of educational administrators.

In the first form of provision, we find ministries laying on courses or conferences within the Ministry itself as a rule. These are provided for the planners, the curriculum developers, the inspectorate, office managers, local directors of education, but usually on an occasional basis. There is not normally any sequential basis to this provision--it attempts to deal with specific problems as they occur,--and it rarely attempts to cover the mass of principals and deputy principals who are usually too numerous to be catered for. Weaknesses of this provision are numerous. There is usually little or no investigation into the real training needs of the participants and very often the courses are mainly intended to inform participants of some new initiative rather than to equip them to carry it out. The 'trainers' are often carrying out a propaganda role; they may have little training skill or ability; not infrequently they are ignorant of education and will have been brought in temporarily from a national institute of public administration or some university equivalent. Also there is often little follow-up in terms of supporting the participants in their subsequent work or evaluating the impact of the original input.

*This term is used to denote any regional, provincial, district or local authority charged with providing educational services.

The second form of provision--by university departments of education--has also been exposed to a considerable volume of criticism. The courses usually lead to an academic award, and this may mean that they are too long and too preoccupied with the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills which are different from those needed by the administrator. A frequent complaint is that these courses are too 'theoretical' and insufficiently "practical." This distinction is really a naive one; the problem is more that such courses tend to stress acquisition of knowledge (of facts and theories) rather than acquisition of skills or competencies. Of course in reality one needs the most appropriate mixture of both, and ultimately the distinction between "theory" and "practice" breaks down; "there is nothing so practical as a good theory," as Kurt Lewin remarked--the problem is to know what theories are good ones and to discern their practical implications. Also, academic courses do entail the acquisition of skills--taking notes, writing succinct presentations, listening and exposition, gutting texts for their essential signifance under pressure, and others which are very much germane to the administrator's task. Nevertheless many administrative skills, particularly in the human relations domain are given little airing in these courses other than by exposure to such theoretical fields as organizational sociology, industrial psychology, systems theory, and development economics. The chances of administrators being able to improve the morale of their subordinates as a result remains doubtful. Even more mundane items such as, how to run a staff-meeting, or a parent-teacher association, or how to do the accounts, tend to receive scant attention. Further, university sponsored courses often apply excessively stringent admissions and assessment criteria in relation to the employer's and the employees' needs in terms of job-performance.

On the job training, our third category, is rarely practised in any systematic way. School principals are often expected to make the transition from classroom teacher to head teacher on the basis of classroom experience alone. A fortunate few will have served a period as deputy principal under the watchful eye of an experienced and helpful head, or a novice inspector may be teamed with a more experienced one, but whether any formal training other than "sitting with Nellie" or "learning by doing" takes place is unlikely. One of the few countries anywhere to have a formal scheme of principals training their deputies is Japan.

Another form of on the job training is in the use of distance teaching materials --self instructional manuals or correspondence courses. These are not widespread at the moment but there is growing interest in the techniques. The Alama Iqbal Open University of Pakistan provides correspondence courses for educational administrators, for instance. However, doubts have been expressed whether distance teaching can effectively improve skills, although its scope in improving the knowledge base of trainees is not questioned.

The fourth form of provision, training abroad--most frequently on academic award-bearing course in foreign universities--has usually been reserved for higher-level administrators and planners. It is, of course, very expensive and in most countries depends on the supply of aid-funded scholarships from foreign donors. (One curious omission in the past, which is now beginning to receive some attention, is courses for the training of trainers.) The same kind of criticisms of university-type courses reported earlier are levelled at this type of training, and in some instances such courses may be even more irrelevant. It is not unkown for administrators to attend courses in industrialised countries which are intended purely for nationals of those countries. In Britain, for example, trainees from Third World countries may find themselves on courses which demand a detailed knowledge of the workings of British local government and the Department of Education and Science, and which rarely contain even an element of comparative study of administration in other European countries. Indeed, our observation is that educational administration training in many parts of the world is very parochial; we have known trainers to assert that they have nothing to learn from other countries.

This raises a very important question, to which we shall return later, concerning the relevance of training aims, contents and methods developed in any one context to any other. Interestingly, one form of foreign training that is developing, and increasingly, is for groups of trainees from one third world country to go to another (e.g. Sri Lankan administrators being sent to India and Malaysia) for staff development purposes.

The fifth form of provision, that of national institutes for training educational administrators--normally sponsored by the Ministry or part of--is a more recent phenomenon. There is quite a clutch of these newly-hatched outfits --particularly around the rim (and in the middle) of the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea. For example:

- NIEPA (National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration --India)
- SCEA (Staff College for Educational Administration--Sri Lanka)
- IDEA (Institute for the Development of Educational Administration-- one in Thailand, one in Philippines)
- KESI (Kenya Education Staff Institute)
- MANTEP (Management Training for Educational Personnel--Tanzania)
- MIE (Mauritius Institute of Education)
- NIEM (National Institute of Educational Management--Malaysia)
- Management and Training Centre (recent initiative of the Ministry of Education--Ethopia)

(d) The Effects of the New Emphasis

It is too early to say whether the new emphasis being given to training administrators is having a significant qualitative impact. Most of the new institutes have not been in existence long enough to have done more than begin to address the needs. Even in countries like India and Malaysia, where the training programmes have been in operation for a number of years, the numbers of personnel requiring training are very large. In Sri Lanka, for example, the numbers of principals, inspectors and education officers who should receive training is far greater than the Staff College can cope with. As a result, the SCEA concentrates on the Columbo district and four pilot areas in which an experimental management reform is under way. Regional management centres in other parts of the island are intended to cater to others, but these are in their infancy. In Tanzania there are 10,000 primary school principals in need of training (apart from other categories), but most of the staff of MANTEP are currently overseas being trained themselves.

If the new initiatives are to have a significant impact in the future, there are a number of problem areas that will need to be tackled. The following problematique is of course a general one, based on our experience of a wide variety of institutions. Not every problem afflicts every institution, though many experience most of them.

(i) Inadequate budgets

Some of the new institutes are run on a shoestring. They are housed in poor accommodation, often premises that have been vacated or abandoned by someone else. There is insufficient equipment, especially transportation. There are not enough ancillary personnel - in one place a trainer with UNESCO experience and a Master's degree does all the photocopying. Very few institutes have a research/evaluation officer, or spend significant sums on these crucial activities. It is essential to create an impression on administrative trainees that the training institute is itself a model of efficient organization, otherwise they are likely to be unmoved by the rhetoric of the trainers.

(ii)Shortage of suitable training materials

Materials production is a very time consuming exercise which requires a good deal of special skills. Indeed, being a good trainer and a good materials designer are by no means identical. Trainers often have timetables that leave insufficient time for generating materials, and this increases the pressure on them to use traditional methods, particularly the lecture.

(iii) Undertrained trainers

The trainers themselves sometimes lack sufficient knowledge of their own subject matter, especially in regard to having a critical approach to it. Planning techniques, for example, are often taught without any discussion of their limitations. The trainers, in some instances, have inadequate knowledge and experience of alternative training methods and techniques; their style and approach is frequently that of the teacher rather than the trainer. In general though, this problem of undertrained trainers is being tackled because it is an area where aid agencies can fairly easily supply technical assistance (although one wonders sometimes about the appropriateness of some of this assistance).

(iv) Neglect of research into training needs and impact of training

Research is a greatly neglected area. Very little systematic study of the training needs of the clientele is carried out. When there is some effort it is usually done by the trainers who frequently have little or no research background. Gross sampling errors, ambiguous questionnaires, prejudged conclusions, invalid inferences and other weaknesses are common. The results often indicate broad vague topic areas without specifying the skills or competencies that are needed to perform a particular job in a particular context. The results are similar with impact studies. Evaluation consists, all too frequently, of enquiring whether trainees found the course useful, and which bits they found most useful. Whether training actually improves job performance is a very difficult question to answer, and it is significant that the few studies which make a serious attempt to answer it usually find little evidence in favour. This may, of course, be due to the methodological problem.

(v) Lack of a coherent national training policy

A fifth problem area, and one which to a great extent contributes to those institutional problems we have already mentioned, is the lack, in some countries, of any coherent training policy on educational administrator improvement and poor coordination and integration of training provision. It seems that many of the questions covering the status and priority to be given to training, trainee selection and incentives for training, personnel policies and so on are insufficiently explored for the new initiatives to achieve maximum impact.

2. METHODS AND MATERIALS - AN OVERVIEW AND EXAMINATION OF ISSUES

The first part of this paper highlighted some of the contextual factors surrounding the professional development of educational administrators, and looked at patterns of training provision. A number of problem areas were identified including the neglect of adequate training needs analysis and the issue of appropriate and suitable methods and materials.

In order to provide additional reference points for our subsequent analysis of learning resources for professional development of educational administrators in the third world it will be useful now to:

(a) provide an overview of methods used in training,

(b) highlight some key issues surrounding methods and consider some of the arguments for and against their use, the issue of cultural appropriateness, the evidence which exists concerning their effectiveness and the factors affecting the choice of method,

(c) look at materials needs and availability,

(d) examine the experiences of curriculum innovation in other sectors with a view to identifying significant factors associated with successful materials development, dissemination and implementation.

(a) Overview of methods used in training administrators

The descriptive literature on teaching methods and materials used in preparing educational administrators is extensive, particularly as it pertains to the West. The methods of instruction range from traditional lectures to case studies and modern instructional technology such as the use of computer simulations. It is evident that a wide range of methods are being used.

Many of the non-traditional methods now used in training educational administrators derive from the experience in fields other than education. Thus case study methods, in-basket exercises and simulations have their origins in war games employed in military training. These were quickly adopted and used extensively in management training, as a number of standard references have documented.[1]

These developments have had some influence on the education sector, and inevitably there has been an increasing tendency to explore the potential and value of such approaches for educational administration training. Recent years have seen a shift from learning through theoretical and knowledge packed lectures to learning and developing educational administrative skills through practice, experience and less traditional methods.

A further influence on approaches adopted in educational administrator training, particularly in North America, is the competency-based training movement. CBT has been used for developing training models in a number of fields, but only recently has it been applied to educational administration training. The approach rigorously and systematically identifies what competencies are required of effective leaders (or other groups), by developing and testing competency indicators which describe a leader's performance in terms of a large number of competency statements, and the level of competency required. On the basis of this analysis, project teams can develop instructional programmes and materials for identified competencies, together with assessment tools. One example of this is Project ASK (Administrative Skills and Knowledge) at the University of Alberta in Canada which has developed educational programmes and modular materials to cover selected priority tasks of school principals.[2]

A number of overviews of educational administrator preparation have highlighted the developments in the non traditional methods. In an early overview of the American situation, Wynn[3] reported optimistically on the progress in the development of what he calls 'unconventional' methods and materials (eg. case studies, simulation exercises and role-plays), discussing their advantages and disadvantages and providing examples of their use. However, a more recent review of preparatory programmes in American institutions[4] reveals that the predominant mode of instruction amongst the 375 institutions surveyed was classroom lectures and discussions, with groups of 10-30 students. Moreover, whilst some use of simulation techniques was reported by professors, the students surveyed did not support that they had actually experienced these extensively. It appears, therefore, that although most course descriptions indicate that a range of teaching methodologies are used, there seems to be little documentary evidence to support these claims, or comprehensive surveys which indicate the extent of use; more frequently the literature reveals the lack of use of such methods.

Reports of methods used in the third world have indicated that there is a trend towards greater utilisation of non-traditional methods, but no detailed surveys of methods have been found in the literature. A Unesco review of programmes for training school administrators and supervisors in the Far East revealed that methods used included lecture-type sessions; panel discussions; viewing of films; in-basket training; group dynamics; simulated games; and role playing.[5]

The Unesco Regional Office in Bangkok has been instrumental in enhancing the capability of national training centres in the Far East in carrying out their training programmes in educational planning and administration. Activities include training and materials development workshops involving the development and testing of distance teaching materials in educational administration. A recent project evaluation workshop noted the need to improve existing materials, develop further materials and explore the use of a wider variety of training methods.[6]

(b) Training methods - key issues

(i) Rational for the use of non-traditional methods

The case for non-traditional approaches to training is based on a number of arguments. The widespread impact of management sciences on educational administration has, to some extent, resulted in trainers becoming less interested in theory and knowledge and more interested in the development of attitudes and skills, and there are many who now consider that the primary purpose of training is to improve the skills area. To achieve this, it is argued, a trainee needs practice and feedback, and, therefore, methods must be sought which allow this and which go beyond the "sterility of traditional classroom based training."[7] Training should permit the learner to try out skills and techniques and profit by mistakes in a framework which provides important elements of their environment without including those leading to danger or unnecessary complexity.

A key feature of this view about training is the importance of experience. Experiential training is based on the direct experiences of the participants as opposed to the vicarious experience garnered through didactic approaches. It is also an inductive rather than a deductive process--the participant discovers for himself or herself the learnings offered by the experiential process. One of the major proponents of learning through experience is Kolb[8] who presents it as a cycle consisting of: the concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. The debate surrounding the theory-practice conflict, and the concept of the transfer of training (or learning) through provision of "reality-oriented" experiences has thus been the motivating force behind the adoption of new participatory techniques. A further argument is that many non-traditional methods, for example simulations, not ony provide an experience of reality which will enable transfer of learning, but also are the most effective method of teaching management practice to large numbers of students. Often they are the only substitute available for supervised field attachments.

The case for non-traditional methods is supported by what is known of how adults learn. Adult development theories describe a variety of elements or environmental conditions that facilitate development towards maturity. Most significantly, all highlight a basic belief in the learner. They have important implications for adult education and the general prescriptions for ways to promote adult learning; educational principles employed by trainers of educational administrators need to be based on adult and not child learning.

This distinction, between andragogy and pedagogy has been highlighted by Knowles.[9] The former is described as a process model where the teacher (trainer) acts as a facilitator who creates a mechanism for mutual learning and designs a pattern of learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials.

In the pedagogical method, the teacher decides the knowledge or skills to be transmitted, organises content into a logical order and "teaches" using lectures, readings, discussions and other expositive methods.

In sum, the arguments for the more extensive use of non-traditional training methods derive from the key concepts of andragogy and the transfer of learning. The applications of these arguments within the specialist field of educational administration is less widespread than in other spheres of adult education, but is increasing.

(ii) Arguments against the use of non-traditional methods

There are a number of arguments presented against the use of non-traditional methods. These can best be illustrated by a consideration of the factors which appear to militate against their wider use. The development of materials in support of many non-traditional methods, such as in-basket exercises, simulations and role-playing situations is arduous and time-consuming, and the expertise often not available either to develop the materials required or to handle the method in the training situation.

Such methods can be felt as a threat by both trainers and participants; the participants are confronted with difficult situations in which their responses and behaviours are exposed and challenged by their colleagues and on the course; the trainer can no longer depend on being the teacher and the font of wisdom, but becomes a facilitator of a unique learning experience.

There are also numerous logistic problems. The methods have implications in terms of space depending, as they frequently do, on intensive small group work and/or large areas for simulation situations; most in-service educational activities are heavily subscribed and space is usually at a premium. Time is another important factor working, as it does, against the more extensive use of human relations techniques such as sensitivity training and T groups, which achieve best results through a series of events or experiences over a period of time.

Most critical, however, are the concerns often expressed at the extent to which learning is actually transferred to the job, and the influence of cultural factors on the use and acceptability of methods developed in a different (western/business) context.

(iii) The issue of cultural appropriateness

As we have seen, many non-traditional methods are supported by andragogic concepts; they are also influenced by psychoanalytic theories, and ideas of inter-personal competition and the need for achievement. Research, most of which has been conducted in the West, appears to validate many of these principles, revealing the importance of such characteristics (eg. respect for personality, participation in decision-making, freedom of expression and mutuality of responsibility for learning) for effective adult education.

However, it is important to consider the possible cultural bias of the assumptions of learner-centred approaches derived from andragogy. In recent years, attention has increasingly been given to the suitability of transferring to developing countries western models of professional preparation and development of educational administration, and to the relevance of theories of school administration.[10] However, discussions about the appropriateness of western methods in developing countries tend to take place within the broader framework of cross cultural training,[11] or focus on experiences in the public administration and management field. The writer, Thiagarajan[12], highlights a number of problems involved in running behavioural science-oriented management training programmes in developing countries. Based on the experience of programmes in Asia, he stresses the importance of ensuring that management training is integrated with the prevailing social and organisational systems. He observes that traditional rote-learning and the status difference between teacher and taught mitigates against the small group behaviourally orientated program. He questions the relevance of the human relations methods as they are based on alien assumptions about student-teacher roles. There are differences in the third world with regards to participation, motivation and in the potential for transfer of learning because of the possibly greater dysfunctions that exist between learning and real life attitudes, the complexities of reward, selection and promotion procedures and the organisational climate. He concludes that whilst there are some universally related and unique areas of behaviour, there is "little systematic evidence as to where and to what extent cross-national differences exist and what environmental factors explain these differences".

A contrasting view is given by Kindervatter,[13] a non-formal adult educator, who suggests that the hierarchical patterns of dominance and deference evident in Asian cultures would appear to conflict with the active participation fundamental to learner-centered approach. However, he maintains that these patterns dominate only certain relationships and certain contexts--particularly institutionalised learning and the formal classroom situation. In rural areas a picture emerges of informal learning through peer interaction--villagers sitting together in informal discussion groups. Thus, if the teacher acts in a formal classroom manner the learners will assume formal roles, but if the teacher acts as facilitator the group will behave more similarly to the informal discussion patterns; a learner-centered approach may actually reinforce rather than conflict with traditional values.

There is, clearly, need for much closer attention to be given to the question of cultural appropriateness. Certainly, no sweeping generalisations are possible, moreover, in discussing the suitability, or otherwise, of transferring western originated methods to the third world. It might also be pertinent to ask about the transfer of American originated methods and innovations to Europe.

(iv) Evaluation of methods--the evidence

The evaluation of methods and materials for preparing educational administrators presents many complex problems. What has handicapped evaluation suggests Wynn,[14] "is the massive criterion problem," i.e. the inadequacy of theory in educational administration results in quite imperfect criteria for evaluation. Moreover, when one considers non-traditional methods, whereas orthodox methods are usually directed towards cognitive development, unorthodox methods presume to stimulate cognitive and affective development and the latter is difficult to assess.

Partly for this reason, much of the evidence regarding the benefits of such methods is subjective, random and derived from the opinion of participants and trainers. Very little detailed or rigorous evaluation has been carried out, particularly with regard to the transferability of learning to the work situation. However, in one of the few reviews of research on methods of human relations training used in educational administrator training, Schmuck[15] maintains that transfer from workshop to school is possible with well designed workshops including human relations training, classroom diagnosis, problem solving techniques, and role play.

If we look at research on the effectiveness of methods when they are used in other areas of management training, the evidence is also sparse. In the management education field, Burgoyne[16] reviewed research on teaching methods and found no "pure" research studies on case-study methods but a large number on T-Group and encounter group methods. This, he suggests, is because there has been so much controversy surrounding the latter, particularly concerning the possibility of damaging psychological side effects.

We can, however, draw on some useful findings from the teacher education field. Joyce and Showers[17] analysed over 200 research studies on methods used in the training of teachers to acquire teaching skills. They used a two-dimensional matrix, one dimension being made up of five components of training--or training methods--theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and classroom application, the other dimension being different levels of impact on the learner: awareness, concepts and organised knowledge, principles and skills, application and problem solving. They argued that it is only when the fourth level of impact (aplication and problem-solving) is reached that we can expect impact on the education of children in the classroom. Whilst acknowledging the paucity and limitations of research to date into the effectiveness of various teaching

methods, they concluded that the knowledge base is firm enough to support their hypothesis, that in training teachers all five components of training are needed to ensure the impact of training and promote the transfer of learning to the actual classroom situation. It is highly probable that the same thesis holds true for the training of educational administrators.

(v) Factors affecting the choice of method

Despite the lack of empirical evidence for or against non-traditional methods, attempts have been made to produce "models" for selecting "appropriate" methods for training administrators.[18] These models highlight the relationship between various training methods and dimensions such as: principles of learning; degree of involvement, risk, interaction, learner activity; the structure and control of content; levels of learning and skills learned.

Since there are so many complex interactions between the various decisions on methods, it is difficult, indeed undesirable, to adopt one strategy or to stick doggedly to the use of one particular method. Few trainers select one theoretical approach to human learning and base their total training strategy on it; the training methods adopted by an experienced trainer or instructional designer will reflect a range of premises from behaviouristic assumptions about stimulus and motivation-response, to those derived from andragogy--either consciously or unconsciously.

All training methods have some comparative advantages and disadvantages which are contingent upon the context, and there is no such thing as the training method. One of the most important factors affecting choice will be the nature of the learning objectives, and a further significant influence will be the various situational parameters which prevail. Trainers will need to vary their choice of strategy and methods according to the situation, because what is effective in one learning situation may not be in another. Equally, it should be borne in mind that often a combination of training methods will result in heightening the learning impact. In the final analysis, a decision to adopt a particular training method may well be influenced by the availabilty of "materials", however undesirable this may be.

(c) Materials for training educational administrators

Trainers have three main options in meeting their requirements for materials:

- Using "published" materials,
- Adapting existing materials,
- Preparing suitable local materials.

(i) Published materials for use in educational administrator training

In the last few years there have been a number of initiatives to promote the use of participatory trianing methods and stimulate the production of materials for use in training third world educational administrators (this is of course the major aim or four project). Particularly noable are the activities of Unesco, The Commonwealth Secretariat and the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA).

The CCEA, for example, has recently produced "The Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators,"[19] which is a useful collection of case studies drawn from Commonwealth countries. The Secretariat has also published "Leadership in the Management of Education: Handbook for Educational Supervisors",[20] which is aimed at both practitioners and trainers and evolved out of a series of regional workshops mounted in the seventies.

A range of self-instructioal print-based materials for training educational planners is being produced by Unesco's, Division of Educational Policy and Planning,[21] and Unesco's Regional Office in Asia at Bankok have produced a range of basic modular materials in educational planning and management.[22] The latter have been widely used and adapted by other countries (eg. Sri Lanka, Nepal, Philippines) with a correspondence version being used by Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan on MA distance teaching courses.

It is evident that there is still a dearth of suitable materials for educational administrator training in third world countries and this derives from numerous and understandable constraints. The design of materials must come out of careful consideration of many key factos, particularly local needs. Looking to western sources for packaged materials is sometimes an undesirable solution and ultimately a national decision must be reached as to who should produce such materials given the apparent demand for them.

Certainly, there are a number of sophisticated simulations or multi-media packages for training educational administrators in the West (mainly of American origin). Where such materials offer a degree of flexibility and can be readily modified and adapted they may be of some use to trainers outside their country of origin. However, the problem of materials produced in the West, and, indeed, by international agencies is that they can rarely be completely appropriate to a country's specific training needs, and their amin role might be for comparative analysis, and to provide ideas and prototypes for local materials development.

(ii) Adapting existing materials

The aim of some of the international materials development projects is not to disseminate documents to serve as recipes or standard models to be applied indifferently in various contexts, but, as is the intention with Unesco EPP training materials "to present materials which can be applied to different situations after local experimentation and adaptation to local needs."[23]

Certainly, some materials can be relatively easily adapted and it is often surprising how similar the day to day problems can be across different countries and continents. Adaptation could consist of the renaming of characters in a case study or role play, altering job designations and organisational features, or more general re-wording to provide, for example, a more "recognisable" background and more realistic items for an in-basket exercise.

The rational behind arguments for adapting existing materials (rather than original preparation) is cost and personnel considerations. However, there does come a point at which it is more costly and time consuming to adapt and modify existing materials which do not altogether fit desired requirements than to prepare new materials ab initio. The advantages and disadvantages of adaptation therefore, need to be carefully weighed.

(iii) The preparation of local materials

The alternative to international/centralised production for possible local adaptation, is production in-country. The problem here is resource constraints and lack of expertise, although undoubtedly the next few years will see an increasing range of locally produced materials. Indeed, a number of national training agencies, such as IDEA in the Philippines and NIEPA in India, have already produced a range of case study materials, simulation exercises and role plays. Materials developed by NIEPA, for example, include a human relations training package for school administrator training consisting of a brief background sheet, a videotape showing an incident, and a set of questions for case-study analysis.[24] The Unesco Asian network has also explored the possibility of strengthening the written word or correspondence lesson units with audio visual support through audio cassettes/tapes and videotapes.

Much of the material in this area is difficult to identify; the use of a specific case study or simulation exercise can be a very personal affair, and even within institutions the availability of a simulation on educational planning produced by one lecturer does not mean that it will be known about or even used by others. Materials adoption is a problematic issue as we shall see in the next section. Ideally, material for use in educational administration training should be produced by local trainers and lecturers, for use within their own very specific contexts, and to meet clearly identified learning objectives.

(d) Materials--dissemination and implementation problems

The experience of the past quarter of a century's efforts at educational reform in both developing and industrialised countries reveals that it appears to be the rule rather than the exception for efforts to implement innovations, be they major organisational changes or small scale curriculum inovations and associated materials, to be less than wholly successful. It is beyond the scope of this paper to review the literature on education innovation,[25] but it will be useful to look briefly at some of the problems encountered in implementing curricular innovations with a view to seeing what lessons, if any, have been learnt and what the implications might be for our own particular area of concern; materials for educational administrator training.

There have been a large number of American studies of educational change efforts[26] which examine why many of the large scale primary and secondary school curriculum and materials development projects of the last two decades have had limited impact. The UK experiences in educational change and in particular curriculum innovation have also been widely documented, particularly the Schools Council projects.

Upwards of 180 curriculum projects were funded by the Schools Council, the central curriculum development agency which functioned between 1964-1982. Many projects started well and failed to get institutionalised, and even apparently effective projects fizzled out because funding ended and teachers were left without the support they still needed. A common phenomena with a number of large scale projects is "innovation without change,"[27] where an innovation can be taught extremely badly by teachers who acquire the materials without the necessary training and who either slavishly adhere to them or else mix them up with other conflicting methods; thus, even when implemented, changes in the materials used in the classroom are not matched by changes in methodology or teacher philosophy.

Many studies in the past decade have shown that project implementation is often only partial, that project aims are often misunderstood or distorted and that adaptation frequently takes place both in the innovation and the system in which it is introduced.[28] One of the problems facing curriculum evaluators is what criteria should be used in judging success. Do we count only projects that have been "adopted" by schools? Or, do we take a "mutual adaptation" perspective, and if so, how do we make judgements about the adaptation of the project design and the relative impact of the philosophy and materials? If the materials are used in a way that is alien to the project philosophy, is this taken up? Certainly adaptation is more usual than adoption and it is probably quite healthy that a user modifies innovations to meet local conditions rather than swallowing innovations whole.

Whilst we find that considerable research has been done in the process of implementing educational change in industrialised countries, and that there is a greater understanding of the variables that determine success or failure of change programmes, other than a few notable studies,[29] there has been little detailed research on the process of implementing educational change in developing countries.

However, a number of significant points and principles are prominent in many of the discussions concerning factors affecting implementation, which would seem to be universally applicable. The multi-faceted world of educational change can contribute to our understanding of how best to go about developing and disseminating learning resources for educational administrator training. Materials development is part of the curriculum development process, and success is not just a matter of introducing any new materials. The factors and conditions affecting implementation which are highlighted by Fullan would seem

to be highly relevant to our discussion. He presents these as key principles of implementation:[30]

- Implementation is a process not an event. It occurs gradually or incrementally over time,

- The innovation will get adapted, developed and modified during use,

- Implementation is a process of professional development and growth,

- Implementation is a process during which individuals and groups come to understand and use a change involving new materials, behaviour and thinking,

- Interaction and technical assistance are essential for the socialisation and clarification process,

- There are many practical obstacles to implementation, therefore planning is necessary if problems are to be overcome, and planning is itself an implementation problem,

- One hundred percent implementation is probably not desirable, and in any case is impossible,

- The ultimate aim of implementation should be to develop the capacity of the system, school or individual to process further innovations.

These principles highlight the danger of considering the trainer as a passive recipient and implementer of curricular packages developed by specialists elsewhere, the importance of providing support for successful implementation of packages particularly those requiring changes in trainer philosophy and methodology, and the fact that materials will inevitably be adapted by users.

3. THE ODA PROJECT MATERIALS--DEVELOPMENT, DISSEMINATION, EVALUATION

(a) Rationale for our materials development strategy

When we embarked on the project, we were guided by the principle that the development of methods and materials for educational administrator training must be considered within the context of a number of broader issues, as highlighted in parts 1 & 2 of this paper. The first phase of the project looked at these issues by gathering information from a range of sources. This included a review of the literature, views and feedback obtained from third world trainers (in particular a network of project participants) through questionnaires, discussion, interviews and observations in a range of countries.

A key question was the needs to which training should be directed. As noted in part 1, this is a greatly neglected area, and although a number of national training agencies are starting to systematically address this question, there is still much uncertainty as to the best way of undertaking such analysis. We have accordingly completed a short guide to "Training Needs Analysis".

One major feature of any training needs analysis is the identification of priority target groups. Our initial research highlighted that, the group described as the "middle-level" administrator covering school principals, district education officers and supervisors and inspectors, is most frequently identified as a top priority for training. In citing this group, references have been made to the multiplier effect: the growing numbers of young untrained persons taking on responsibilities for planning, directing and administering educational programmes; the administrative implications of educational innovation; and the increasing autonomy of school principals in some systems. We, therefore, decided to focus our attention on the development of materials for use with this target group.

The question then arose as to what are the key competency requirements in priority task areas of middle level administrators. Here we faced a considerable dilemma, and rather than attempt to develop materials which were very specifically skill or task oriented we chose to adopt a pragmatic approach. We identified what we believed were significant problem areas in educational administration in third world countries, with a view to considering these topics through the materials and providing trainers with a springboard for training in a range of skills as far as they were appropriate or necessary in their contexts. Accordingly, we drew up a list of topics for consideration by our network of participants, and the information and feedback we received through survey work was carefully considered and used to guide our future strategy for materials development.

Before embarking on materials development we also set out to study the nature of present training provisions in third world countries. The course information that we have received suggests a wide range of course objectives, course content and target groups, from the more general courses in educational management and administration to highly specific courses in project planning and management. The extent to which such provisions are meeting trainees' and systems' needs remains unclear in the absence of any thorough impact studies.

Information on the training methods used on courses in the third world has also been provided by our network of participants. Most report the use of lectures, discussions, case studies, role playing, simulations, exercises and field work, but experience suggests that, on the whole, conventional lecture methods still largely predominate in educational administrator training courses worldwide. This is particularly so in the more theoretical knowledge-based university courses, and it is in the shorter in-service course and workshop that the participatory methods are more widely adopted.

The use of innovative training methods and associated materials by trainers appears to be a highly individual affair, and to conclude that the limited use is solely due to the lack of materials is to oversimplify the situation; what may be more significant is the lack of expertise and confidence in developing and employing such methods and materials. This is very evident from discussion with trainers and observation of courses in both developed and developing countries. It is for this reason that we felt that an important task of the research project was to help encourage and promote the effective use of such methods through the provision of carefully designed materials.

The positive response which the project received suggests however, that most third world trainers find the shortage of appropriate training materials a major constraint. As noted in part 2 of this paper, other than a few notable examples of case studies and self-instructional courses there appear to be no "published" and widely distributed materials of this field. Trainers produce their own materials, if at all, and examples of such internally produced materials indicate the preponderance of readings and course notes based on standard academic texts. There is, however, some in-house production of case studies, but it is evident that the constraints of time, money and trainer expertise militate against this being a very widespread practice.

It was obvious to us that no single package could be effective for all countries, and that it was also neither feasible nor desirable to attempt to develop a ready-made package for immediate implementation in any one country. We felt that what we should aim for in our materials was to provide some practical points or departure to enable trainers to draw on international experiences and gain further insights into the possibilities offered by alternative methodologies.

This last point highlights a further important question. Should materials be for the trainer to use on a taught course; packages indicating to trainers how to execute a particular training task and providing materials for them to do so; self-instructional materials for use by trainees; or even some combination of these modes? Responses from participants indicated that they would be most interested in packaged materials combining trainee and trainer oriented components for use on taught courses.

Given these responses and concerns, we embarked on a materials development strategy guided by a number of principles. We felt that the materials should:

- be presented as prototypes for local field testing and adaptation,
- be a package of learning & training resources, (to provide support for both trainee and trainer), rather than individual items such as case studies,
- be flexible and structured in such a way as to allow the various components making up the package to be selected, modified or supplemented to meet local needs,
- reflect current thinking about the most appropriate methodologies for adult learning and transfer of learning.

Accordingly, we embarked on the development of a package of materials entitled "Managing Educational Change." In addition, materials currently in preparation cover the topic, "The Use of Microcomputers in Educational Administration." We have also developed two guides for trainers, one on "Training Needs Analysis," the other on "Training Methods for Educational Administrator Training," reflecting our concern that perhaps the greatest need in this area is in providing support for trainers.

(b) The Materials, "Managing Educational Change"

The overall aim of "Managing Educational Change" (MEC) is to provide prototype materials for a study of the management of educational change and, by implication, management within a changing education system, through an examination of the key issues surrounding educational change and the analysis of the practical considerations of managing change in schools.

The materials are for use on courses for practising school head teachers, although with modification they could be used on courses for middle-level administrators. The theme "Managing Educational Change" is covered through a series of 6 units grouped under two topic headings: "Key issues in Educational Innovation," and "Managing Change in Schools."

These units are designed in such a way that, although reference is made to other units, they each provide a series of activities to form the basis of a complete "learning experience." Each unit consists of a number of components, the core being a series of worksheets for trainers and participants corresponding to the activities which make up the unit. They are designed on the cafeteria principle, and we anticipate that trainers will select units to meet local training needs. Units can be combined in a variety of ways, either to enable a different emphasis within a training programme, or to form the basis for a broader programme when supplemented by additional materials, lecturers from outside, field visits, etc.

The package is not presented as a rigid syllabus, it merely suggests a possible approach to the structuring of a series of learning experiences based on the activities making up the units which are themselves provided as examples of how issues could be treated. Each unit has a number of additional optional

activities which provide an opportunity for certain issues to be examined in further depth, should trainers feel that this is desirable. Moreover, whilst we have provided some case study material and simulation exercises, there is a need to supplement these with more directly relevant local materials.

The philosophy underlying the materials is that of learning through an analysis of the problems and practical realities of educational administration. Activity based training sessions and the resulting discussions should help participants in formulating some general principles and developing skills knowledge and attitudes which would enable them to improve their performance at work. We have tended to minimise theoretical inputs, and whilst elements of theory are implicit in the materials, theoretical perspectives are, on the whole, confined to readings which accompany each unit. What we hope to enable through the materials, is that theory, where it might be usefully considered, should derive from the work on the activities. (Further details of the materials are presented as Annex 1).

(c) Evaluation

(i) Strategies adopted

Two strategies have been adopted in evaluating the project materials.

Postal questionnaire: The draft packages of materials have been distributed to our network of participants together with an evaluation guide which draws attention to the sorts of issues which we would like responders to pay particular attention to. In sum, these are questions concerning: the actual usage of materials (how, why, when, problems, etc...); the appropriateness of the materials and the actual strategy adopted; usability and adequacy; quality and practical aspects of use; and an overall assessment of the materials, in relation to local needs. Initial responses have been favourable. However, (a) it is clear that none of those responding have actually used the materials, although indication is given that they will use them; (b) the over-positive comments suggest that the materials may not have been subjected to a very rigorous, detailed and critical scrutiny.

Workshop evaluation: The materials have been used on workshops in Thailand and Sri Lanka (and further evaluation workshops are scheduled for Mauritius, Kenya and Malta). This has provided a valuable opportunity for us to observe the materials in use and make an assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. It has also thrown into focus a major problem area facing the research project. Namely, any assessment of the project's success as a materials development project needs to be undertaken within a much more complex frame of reference than we, perhaps rather naively, originally anticipated. (Of this, more later). These two field tests were somewhat different and as the Thailand exercise was mainly opportunistic (the material was used on a workshop on Course Evaluation to provide the participants with a "live" course on which to practice evaluation techniques), the rest of this section will discuss the evaluation undertaken in Sri Lanka.

The Sri Lankan Workshop was undertaken in collaboration with the Staff College for Educational Administration. The aims were: the evaluation, adaptation and development of project materials by field-testing them in Sri Lanka; the consideration of methodologies for training educational administrators and associated materials needs in the country in order to stimulate the materials development process at the Staff College.

In order to achieve the objectives, the workshop was designed and structured so that the actual field testing of ODA funded project materials was introduced as part of an overall learning experience. This involved an examination of issues surrounding training methods and materials, the preparation and running of mini-courses using the UK project materials which embody a particular training strategy, an identification of problems encountered in using the materials (and inherent methods) and an attempt to apply the lessons learnt in a final materials development phase.

It was not possible to field test all six units making up MEC in the time available, and, as it was felt that each unit "stood alone," we decided to undertake a detailed evaluation of the units making up the second topic, namely Unit 5, "Management and Change an Introduction," and Unit 6, "Resource Management and the Change Process."

Two groups of SCEA trainers were asked to study the units and prepare and run mini-courses based on the materials. The mini-courses would last for one and a half days with two groups of "guinea pig" participants (Grade 1 & 2 secondary school principals). The courses would be evaluated by two further groups of SCEA trainers. Each member of the above teams was provided with a copy of the relevant unit together with a copy of the "Introduction and Overview" (to the materials package). They were given two days for preparation.

A variety of evaluation procedures were used at the Workshop including, observation schedules, questionnaires, interviews and informal discussions with participants (trainers, evaluators, trainees).

(ii) An overview of findings and assessments

It is beyond the scope of this paper to present a detailed account of the findings of the field test, and we will merely summarise a few key points.

There was general agreement that the materials with some adaptation and modification were relevant and valuable for use in the Sri Lankan context, and could be exploited to form the basis of a mini-course or extended for use on a longer course. The topic was felt to be relevant to Sri Lanka given, the current reforms which stress the role of the principal as a change agent, and the need to encourage principals to adopt a more change-oriented approach moving from maintenance tasks to development tasks. The exposure to educational practices and innovations in other countries was welcomed.

The materials were, on the whole, used as presented. Trainers followed the units' structure and sequence of content, and utilised all the activities (with some minor modifications to worksheet questions). Reference was made to local contextual factors and issues at certain points but no attempt was made to introduce any new materials or activities. (This was in marked contrast to the "trial" in Thailand where a range of local materials and activities were introduced.)

Overall, the mini-courses were perceived to be successful, effective and enjoyable. The trainees appeared to like the materials and the approaches inherent in them very much, they were satisfied with the experience and believed that they had learnt something during the one and a half days.

The approach adopted in the materials (learning through an analysis of problems) was felt by the trainers to be very effective, and the strategy of encouraging active learner participation was thought appropriate. However, some of the trainers had difficulty in effectively adopting the approach required by the materials. One group, in fact, reverted to a very expositive approach, starting with a presentation of theory and then engaging participants in activities. They believed that their participants lacked the necessary knowledge to start with problem-solving activities, arguing:

"Trainees are not culturally attuned to looking at themselves and analysing their organisations ... we agree that the best method is to focus on problems and then build the theory from the problem, but we need skills as trainers to do this..."

The last statement is significant. If trainers are familiar with a predominantly expositive training strategy (giving lectures) they may well encounter very grave difficulties when required to adopt a more discovery oriented approach, as was the case with the project materials. Without some training and familiarisation with new methods and materials, it may well be that they are unable to make the necessary adjustment in their method, and that the materials will do more harm than good. The difficulty here is that, in our attempts to evaluate the materials we find ourselves making evaluative statements about the trainers; it may well be that the materials and associated methods are actually unsuitable in certain contexts.

The trainer education element in the materials was thought to be very helpful, providing a valuable model/guide for inexperienced trainers, and helping them to re-assess their strategies and modify them. However, some suggested that the instructions given in the materials are too restrictive/prescriptive; trainers lacking experience may follow instructions too closely without adopting and modifying them to local needs.

(d) Some conclusions--Project Materials and Strategy

(i) The materials

The materials which we have devised are presented as prototypes. We hope that they will serve as basic modules for trainers in third world countries to enable them to arrive at distinctive programmes to meet their special needs in their own contexts. However, we are also increasingly of the view that a key role that the project should by playing, and is apparently already doing, is to stimulate the institutional materials development process. Such processes may or may not be actually based on project prototype materials, but we hope that the ideas and approaches incorporated in the materials will encourage third world trainers to re-assess their own approaches and, where appropriate, consider the adoption and development of more innovative training methods and materials. Thus, the real judgement of the success of our project must not only be the extent to which, in the long term, materials and associated methods are actually adopted and/or adapted, effectively used to meet local needs, and institutionalised, but whether in the final analysis the materials stimulate initiatives of local origin and thereby contribute towards improvements in the quality of training provision.

In sum then, we recognise that in order to evaluate the success of our project and the project materials in the field we cannot easily separate the twofold aims of (i) materials development and evaluation, and (ii) assisting institutions in materials development.

We, therefore, need to adopt a very broad perspective, looking very carefully at the many factors surrounding materials dissemination and utilisation including the close inter-relationship between methods and materials, the problems of implementing innovations, and the conditions which might contribute towards success or otherwise.

We can use this framework in attempting to draw conclusions from the Sri Lankan field trial. We start with the simple statements that:

(a) the packages of materials on "Managing Educational Change" were reasonably successful when used by Sri Lankan trainers as the basis for mini-courses;

(b) recommendations which were made for improvement of the package were quite minor which suggests that modification for use in Sri Lanka is feasible;

(c) the materials did provide a useful model and appeared to stimulate the materials development process at the Staff College.

In order to assess the degree of project success in Sri Lanka, the key questions which then need to be asked are:

(1) Will the materials actually be used in future courses when the motivational factors associated with the experimental field test are absent?

(2) To what extent will the new methods utilised in the mini-courses be internalised by trainers and incorporated into their repertoires?

(3) If some modification is to be undertaken, who should undertake it?

(4) Will the materials development work initiated at the workshop be sustained in the future, and will some sort of on-going institutional materials development process be implemented?

It is not possible to answer these questions adequately without a follow up visit, but, bearing in mind our earlier discussions of implementation of curricular innovations in Part 2, some conjectures can be made.

Materials adoption: It is doubtful whether the materials presented will be used in Sri Lanka, although it is highly likely that certain of the components of the units (readings, selected activities, background notes) will be used by some of the trainers. (Subsequent correspondence suggest that this is the case).

Institutionalization of materials development process: The Staff College has already developed a range of training materials, but the faculty members acknowledge that these are strongly biased towards theory and knowledge, and could usefully be revised with a greater emphasis on practice and action. They were clearly enthusiastic about developing more innovative materials. It is however hard to see how they will find the time to pursue such activities without strong support from management.

If staff colleges such as the one in Sri Lanka are to progress in using a wider range of training methods and developing training materials which require more participatory approaches and elaborate training tactics, there is a clear need for some attention to be given to staff development in these areas. There is little point in spending time and effort in these directions if the staff are unable to adapt or lack the skills to exploit non-lecture based methodology.

Modification/adaptation: It was notable that during the short materials development phase of the workshop, participants chose not to attempt to modify any of the project materials. However, all their initiatives were clearly influenced by the project materials, both with respect to topic area, and, more significantly, to methodology. The latter feature was very encouraging in that it suggests that the aim of stimulating the use of innovative methods and materials was realised. However, the fact that no plans were made or steps taken to actually modify our materials was disappointing. One reason for this may be that there was a strong indication throughout the workshop that we would be modifying the materials for use in Sri Lanka.

(ii) Future strategy

We have included that rather than embarking on any major changes, modification to the project materials should be confined to detail. No amount of adaptation by us will make the package suitable for use in all third world contexts. However, given the demands the materials make on trainers to adopt a possibly unfamiliar approach, it would seem advisable to include additional guidelines and re-inforce the trainer element in the materials.

Our views as to the project's overall success are still largely inconclusive. We need to undertake more follow-up work on implementation and adoption of the MEC package in the field before reaching any final conclusions. Our concern now is less about the materials per se, but about their future dissemination and implementation. However, if we examine our work within the conceptual framework of the implementation of innovations, it is hard not to reach the disheartening conclusion that, in all probability, our project will face the same fate as so many curriculum innovations projects in the past--without support for implementation, the materials will have limited impact.

4. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

The previous section has presented some of the conclusions that we are beginning to make concerning our materials by highlighting problems associated with the dissemination and implementation strategy. In doing so we drew on some of the ideas presented in Parts 1 & 2 of this paper. We will now attempt some more generalisable conclusions on learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the third world.

Any assessment of learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the third world must address at least three questions:

1. What are the needs for learning resources in this area?

2. Who best can service this need?

3. What factors might contribute towards success in developing, disseminating and utilising materials?

The first two questions have already been covered to a great extent in previous discussions and we will focus here on the third question. One of the major lessons learnt over the last decades concerning curriculum development projects and the dissemination of curricular materials is that materials developers can not afford to ignore the many factors associated with introduction, implementation, evaluation and adoption of materials. Thus, any attempt to introduce materials which embody a particular teaching/learning strategy must take into account that implementation of the innovatory materials may require some sort of behavioural change of the user.

In considering the development and introduction of new materials, we must look carefully at the conditions which might facilitate implementation and adoption and devise strategies which recognise that materials might need to be adapted, and that support for implementation is essential.

On the basis of our own experiences and those of other materials developers, it would seem that there are a number of important criteria for success. There is nothing very novel in these materials and they parallel the concerns expressed by those who have studied implementation problems in education.

Materials development

- materials for training educational administrators should derive from an assessment of needs preferably undertaken by/with users of the materials.
- materials must derive from an appreciation of the suitability of alternative methods in achieving these needs.
- there should be a match between methods and materials.
- materials should be field tested on the target group.
- there should be provision of on-going staff development in materials production and institutional support for materials development.
- where materials are externally produced attention must be paid to their dissemination and support given for implementation.
- externally produced materials must be carefully appraised to assess their relevance, suitability, appropriateness, adequacy and usability.
- there should be provision of on-going staff development in training methodology.
- there must be support for implementing/using the materials.
- trainers must feel confident in utlising materials, they will need time to get to know/'own' materials and for preparation.
- it must be recognised that materials will be adapted.

Systems implications

- overall, there should be support for and commitment to educational administrator training provision within the Ministry leading to the allocation of adequate resources, to permit staff development and materials developments.

Our main conclusion is that, as materials developers, we must be concerned with dissemination and support for implementation, and that the key problem is training. Throughout our project we have found ourselves coming back to this issue. A starting point must be training the trainers, and this gives rise to a whole series of further questions concerning the appropriateness of alternative methods and techniques in different contexts; a topic which requires considerably further research.

Another important observation is that while politicians and officials may pay lip-service to the need for training administrators many training institutes are starved of resources. Unless the job is done properly, with adequate facilities, the national sums that are actually allocated are, in fact, wasted because training programmes are bound to be ineffective.

ANNEX I: THE MATERIALS--"MANAGING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE"

(a) Summary of the materials

The materials are for use on courses for practising school head teachers, although with modification they could be used on courses for middle-level administrators. The theme "Managing Educational Change" is covered through a series of six units grouped under two topic headings.

TOPIC A: Key Issues in Educational Innovation

The topic is covered through four units:

1. An Introduction to Educational Innovation and the Innovation Process

2. The Problem of Implementation

3. Strategies of Implementation

4. Theoretical Perspectives and Research into Educational Innovation

The overall aim of units making up the topic are: to examine key issues in educational innovation with particular attention to the nature of innovations and the innovation process, the problems of implementing innovations and the strategies of implementation; to relate the consideration of these issues to the practical experience of participants in managing change; and to assess the contribution of the theoretical and research literature towards improving our understanding of these key issues.

TOPIC B: Managing Change in Schools

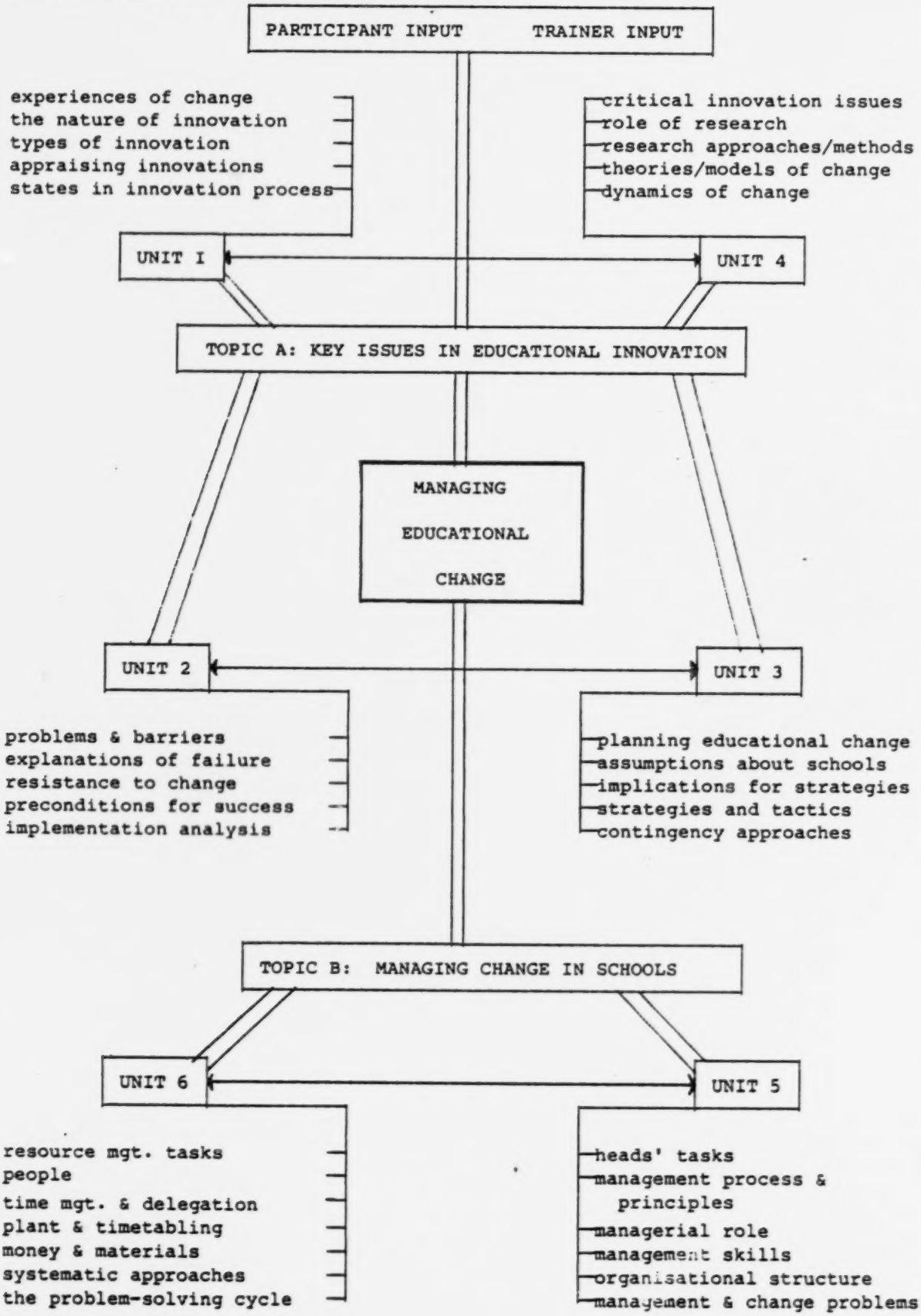
The topic is covered through two units:

5. Management and Change--an Introduction

6. Resource Management and the Change Process

The overall aim of the units making up this topic are: to consider school management tasks, processes and organisational structures and the implications of the introduction of change for the role of the school head; and, focussing on one critical management task, to examine the management of resources with a view to identifying key considerations for the successful introduction and implementation of change in schools.

Thematic, topic, unit linkages



(b) Format of Materials

The units making up "Managing Educational Change" are designed in such a way as to provide a series of activities to form the basis of a complete one to two day "learning experience".

Each unit consists of a number of components, the core being a series of worksheets for trainers and participants corresponding to the activities which make up the unit.

Trainers' Worksheets provide information for the person running the activity by briefly outlining the aim of the activity and suggesting procedures and discussion points. These are sometimes supported by Additional Notes providing further background information for the trainer.

The Worksheets for participants describe the activity to be undertaken and provide space for the various responses required (in some instances participants may find it necessary to supplement the worksheet with additional pages). Worksheet Materials are provided to complement some activities.

The Trainers' Worksheet and the participants' Worksheets are given numbers to indicate the unit and activity number. For example, Trainers' Worksheet 1.1 is for use on the first activity of Unit 1.

Optional Activities are presented in the same format with Trainers' Worksheet Options and Worksheet Options for participants (in some instances the latter are not always provided).

A Reading File is associated with each unit. The extracts (readings) are numbered sequentially within each file.

A Trainers' Unit Guide and Trainers' Unit Schedule provide an overview of the unit and its aims and an approximate time schedule.

A Workcard summarises the objectives of the unit and its activities.

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Pfeiffer, J.N. and Jones, J.F., "An Introduction to Structured Experiences," in Pfeiffer and Jones, Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, (La Jolla, California: University Associates, 1977, 1980, [degree of involvement, risk, interaction]).
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